



TABLE OF CONTENTS

A SURVEY OF THE EDUCATIONAL LEVELS
OF
INDIAN AND METIS SCHOOL CHILDREN
IN THE
PROVINCE OF ALBERTA

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
I PREAMBLE	i
II ENROLMENT	1
III DROPOUTS	6
IV AGE GRADE RETARDATION	11
V TEACHER CERTIFICATION, EXPERIENCE AND MOBILITY	26
VI TEACHER-AIDES AND COUNSELLOR AIDES	35
VII LANGUAGE	38
VIII KINDERGARTEN AND PLAY-SCHOOLS	40
IX THE URBAN SETTING--EDMONTON AND CALGARY	43
X FACING THE PROBLEMS IN NATIVE EDUCATION	46
XI BIBLIOGRAPHY	47
XII APPENDICES	48

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
TABLE I Indian and Metis Student Enrolment in the Province of Alberta, 1970-71 (Excluding the Metis in the Cities of Edmonton and Calgary).	2
TABLE II Indian School Enrolment in the Province of Alberta, 1970-71	3
TABLE III Metis School Enrolment in the Province of Alberta 1960 and 1970 (Excluding the Cities of Edmonton and Calgary)	4
TABLE IV Indian-Metis School Enrolment in Northland School Division, June 1971	5
TABLE V Grade Placement of Native Children in Northern Alberta (Percentages to nearest tenth)	7
TABLE VI Increased Percentage Enrolment of Metis Elementary Students, 1960 and 1970	8
TABLE VII Increased Percentage Enrolment of Metis High School Students, 1960 and 1970	9
TABLE VIII Comparison of Indian and Metis High School Enrolment, 1970	9
TABLE VIII A Percentage of Population Not Attending School With Elementary Education or Less by Ethnic Origin	10
TABLE IX Grade Retardation of Indian Students Enrolled in 28 Schools in the Northland School Division June, 1971	12
TABLE X Grade Retardation of Metis Students Enrolled in 28 Schools in the Northland School Division June 1971	13
TABLE XI Grade Retardation of Indian and Metis Students Enrolled in 28 Schools in the Northland School Division June 1971	14
TABLE XII Grade Level of Indian Students Enrolled in 28 Schools in the Northland School Division June 1971 By Age Grouping	16
TABLE XIII Grade Level of Metis Students Enrolled in 28 Schools in the Northland School Division June 1971 By Age Grouping	17
TABLE XIV Grade Level of Indian and Metis Students Enrolled in 28 Schools in the Northland School Division June 1971 By Age Grouping	18
TABLE XV Promotion and Failure Data of Indian Students in Northland School Division at June 30/71	20
TABLE XVI Promotion and Failure Data of Metis Students in Northland School Division at June 30/71	21
TABLE XVII Promotion and Failure Data of Indian and Metis Students in Northland School Division at June 30/71	22

LIST OF TABLES (CONTINUED)

		Page
TABLE XVIII	Age/Grade Retardation Comparison of Metis Children in Six Inspectorates In Alberta In 1960 With the Metis Children in Northland School Division at June 30, 1971 (The Six 1970 Inspectorates were: Fort Vermilion, High Prairie, Peace River, East Smoky, Athabasca, and Lac La Biche)	23
TABLE XIX	Age/Grade Retardation Comparison of All Alberta Pupils in 1959 With Indian and Metis Children in the Northland School Division at June 30th, 1971	25
TABLE XX	Distribution by Certification	27
TABLE XXI	Comparison of Provincial and Northland School Division Teaching Force by Years of Experience, 1969-70	29
TABLE XXII	Years of Teaching Experience with Present Employing Board (Northland School Division Staff 1969-70 Compared to Provincial Teachers, 1968-69 in Schools of 10 Classrooms or Less)	30
TABLE XXIII	Teacher Mobility	32
TABLE XXIV	Relationship Between Second Language Handicap and Non-Promotion Percentage in Federal Schools - Kindergarten to Grade Four	39
TABLE XXV	Relationship of the Kindergarten Program to Drop-Out Decrease Based on Federal and Non-Federal Schools and Indian Pupil Enrolment	42
TABLE XXVI	Students of Native Canadian Ancestry, Classified by Ethnicity Resident in Edmonton, May, 1970 (12-25 years of age)	44
TABLE XXVII	Students of Native Canadian Ancestry, Classified by Ethnicity Resident in Edmonton, May 1970 (12 - 25 years of age)	45

1. Preamble

This survey was undertaken at the request of the members of the Task Force on Intercultural Education. Its purpose which is two-fold is to:

1. Evaluate the standards of education of Treaty Indian school children attending integrated schools in the Province of Alberta and
2. To evaluate the standards of education of Metis or non-status Indian children, who are residing in Alberta.

The only area in which statistics and information were obtained from school records and from direct contact with staffs, etc. is that of Northland School Division. All other statistics and information from other areas, (which is by no means complete), was obtained from reports and documents, both published and unpublished, which had been prepared by other people or agencies.

With regard to the survey of Northlands School Division, the following conditions and limitations are to be noted when interpreting the statistical data:

1. Northlands has had a policy for several years of "continuous progress" of the student which includes "social promotions". This means that as long as the student is making some progress, he will be promoted yearly up to the Grade VI level. Thus "failures" occur only when no progress at all is made by the student and implies the entire grade must be repeated, and conditional passes occur when only a very minimal progress is made.

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2. The use of the "level" system by many teachers in the first three grades in Northlands made the interpretations of "pass", "conditional pass" and "failure" up to a certain amount of discretionary decision making on the part of the survey people, who generally tended to be lenient in their interpretation.
3. With the exception of Treaty Indian students, Northland keeps no recorded information on the racial origin of their students, explaining that this is in accordance with the provisions of the Human Rights Act. Thus, it was most difficult at times to distinguish between "Metis" and "White" pupils, and thus often we had to rely on the knowledge and memory of staff members to make this distinction for us. Also, in several instances, "educated guesses" had to be made, which were based on whether or not the surname was known to be a Metis name in the area.
4. Students enrolled in the Northland School Division during the 1970-71 year who had moved away during the school year or had quit, are not included in total Northland school enrolment statistics.

Definitions Used

Indian: A person who is registered as a treaty Indian with the Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development.

Metis: For the purpose of this report the definition by Dr. J. W. Chalmers in his study "Grade Placement of Northern Alberta Metis Pupils, 1960 and 1970" will be used. It is as follows:-

"...a Metis being a person who met the following admittedly subjective criteria:

1. He was partly or wholly of Native ancestry but was not a registered Indian.
2. His life style is more Indian than White.
3. His standard of living was below that which would be considered minimally acceptable by White people in the same area.
4. He is regarded both by himself and by his neighbours as Metis."

II ENROLMENT

Enrolment of the Indian student population of Alberta for the 1970-71 year indicates that a total of 9357 students attended either Federal or Provincial schools. An additional 754 attended Hospital and Vocational Schools. Statistics on Indian students are accurate, taken from the Alberta Indian Affairs Annual Report, 1970-71 (table II). With the Metis of Alberta we encounter some difficulty in measuring the population since, in most cases, they are not recognized as an ethnic group. The most reliable area to use is Northland School Division which according to our figures of June, 1971, has a total of 1265 Metis students. This report shall refer extensively to statistics which have been gathered by the Task Force from the school records of Northland School Division.

The most accurate, and probably the only statistics measuring the total Metis population of Alberta (excluding the cities of Edmonton and Calgary) has been compiled by Dr. J. A. Chalmers of the University of Alberta (Chalmers 1960, 1970). In 1960, Chalmers surveyed the Metis school population of Northern Alberta (systems north of Edmonton) and found that a total of 2347 Metis students were enrolled in school (table III). In 1970, a similar survey was carried out revealing a total of 3613 students (table III). Complimenting the 1970 study, Chalmers also measured the Metis school population in the Southern systems. A total of 250 Metis students (Grades 1 - 12) attended southern schools (table III). (Figures in accordance with definition of Metis by Chalmers -- definition in preamble.)

TABLE I

INDIAN AND METIS STUDENT ENROLMENT
 IN THE PROVINCE OF ALBERTA, 1970-71
 (excluding the Metis in the cities of
 Edmonton and Calgary)

GRADE	INDIAN	METIS	TOTAL
PLAY	48		48
K	766	N/A	766
I	1216	627	1843
II	1101	504	1605
III	948	466	1414
IV	947	443	1390
V	934	422	1356
VI	832	389	1221
VII	792	340	1132
VIII	566	268	834
IX	415	175	590
X	352	114	466
XI	182	72	254
XII	153	43	196
Sp.	105		105
	9357	3863 4063	13220 13420

- SOURCES: 1. Alberta Indian Affairs Annual Report
 2. J. A. Chalmers, Grade Placement of Northern Alberta Metis People, 1960 and 1970, unpublished report.

TABLE 11

INDIAN SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN THE
PROVINCE OF ALBERTA, 1970-71

GRADE	FEDERAL SCHOOLS	PROVINCIAL SCHOOLS	TOTAL
PLAY	48	N/A	48
K	514	252	766
I	520	696	1216
II	460	641	1101
III	384	564	948
IV	392	555	947
V	353	581	934
VI	303	529	832
VII	240	552	792
VIII	144	422	566
IX	89	326	415
X	20	332	352
XI	16	166	182
XII	9	144	153
Spec.	0	105	105
	3492	5865	9357

Source: Alberta Indian Affairs Annual Report

TABLE III
METIS SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN THE
PROVINCE OF ALBERTA 1960 AND 1970
(excluding the cities of Edmonton and Calgary)

1960			1970		
GRADE	NORTHERN* SYSTEMS	SOUTHERN* SYSTEMS	NORTHERN SYSTEMS	SOUTHERN SYSTEMS	TOTAL
K	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
I	602	N/A	583	44	627
II	360	N/A	468	36	504
III	373	N/A	439	27	466
IV	279	N/A	402	41	443
V	229	N/A	398	24	422
VI	214	N/A	373	16	389
VII	135	N/A	322	18	340
VIII	76	N/A	250	18	268
IX	55	N/A	167	8	175
X	18	N/A	104	10	114
XI	4	N/A	68	4	72
XII	2	N/A	39	4	43
	2347	N/A	3613	250	3863

*Northern System: Those systems, public and separate, located north of Edmonton

*Southern System: Those systems, public and separate, located south of Edmonton

Source: J. A. Chalmers, Grade Placement of Northern Alberta Metis Pupils, 1960 and 1970, unpublished report.

TABLE IV
INDIAN-METIS SCHOOL ENROLMENT IN
NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION, JUNE 1971

GRADE	INDIAN	METIS	TOTAL
K	N/A	N/A	N/A
I	177	259	436
II	140	196	336
III	115	192	307
IV	100	144	244
V	98	145	243
VI	112	131	243
VII	76	103	179
VIII	41	65	106
IX	26	18	44
X	---	---	---
XI	---	---	---
XII	---	---	---
Opp.	26	12	38
	911	1265	2176

Source: Year End Progress Reports, Northland School Division, June 1971

III DROPOUTS

Although no systematic study was done on student dropouts separately, enrolment figures by grades reveal that few Native children are receiving a high school education as compared with the rest of the provincial norm. There is a gradual drop in enrolment beginning at about the Grade Four level and growing more evident until one reaches Grade Twelve standing.

The Hawthorn report of 1966 reports that the 1963-64 enrolment figures indicate that there was a 94 per cent loss of school population between Grades One and Twelve. The national rate of dropout for non-Indian students was approximately 12 per cent. Samples taken by the Hawthorn report also indicated that 80 per cent of Indian children repeat Grade One. Many Indian children repeat Grade One three times. Others are promoted after failing One; they usually manage to complete Grades Two and Three but fail Grade Four. (Hawthorn Report, 1966).

According to enrolment figures of Indian and Metis students for 1970, the dropout rate is still quite alarming. However, there is a slight indication of improvement over the last 10 years, as illustrated. (Table V).

TABLE V
GRADE PLACEMENT OF NATIVE CHILDREN
IN NORTHERN ALBERTA
(Percentages to nearest tenth)

GRADE	1960		1970	
	N	%	N	%
I	602	25.7	32,536	11.7
II	300	15.3	30,105	10.8
III	373	16.0	28,378	10.2
IV	279	12.0	27,042	9.7
V	229	9.7	26,211	9.4
VI	214	9.0	25,902	9.3
VII	135	5.7	26,020	9.4
VIII	76	3.2	22,222	8.0
IX	55	2.3	19,161	6.9
X	13	0.8	15,707	5.6
XI	4	0.2	13,344	4.8
XII	2	0.1	11,291	4.0
TOTAL SPECIAL PROGRAMS	2,347		277,920	
PROVINCIAL TOTAL, 1970			3,613	
			1,811	
			409,433	
			4,286	
			413,719	

Table VI shows that in 1960, 25 per cent of Metis Children were in Grade One and 56 per cent in the first three grades. In 1970, the corresponding figures were 16.1 and 43.3 per cent. The provincial ratio also declined from 11.7 to 9.6 per cent in Grade One and from 32.7 to 27.9 per cent in Grades One to Three.

TABLE VI
INCREASED PERCENTAGE ENROLMENT OF METIS ELEMENTARY STUDENTS,
1960 AND 1970

GRADE	1960		1970		DIFFERENCE	
	METIS %	PROVINCE %	METIS %	PROVINCE %	METIS %	PROVINCE %
I	25.7	11.7	16.1	9.6	9.6	2.1
II	15.3	10.8	13.0	9.2	2.3	1.6
III	16.0	10.2	12.2	9.1	3.8	1.1
	56.0	32.7	41.3	27.9	15.7	4.8

There is also an upward trend in enrolment of Metis high school students. Table VII illustrates an increased percentage of Metis enrolment in high schools by more than four times. This is quite significant since the total provincial growth was 49 per cent, practically identical with both the Northern Metis and total Northern growth (Chalmers, 1970).

TABLE VII

INCREASED PERCENTAGE ENROLMENT OF METIS
HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, 1960 AND 1970

	1960		1970		DIFFERENCE	
	METIS	PROVINCE	METIS	PROVINCE	METIS	PROVINCE
GRADE	%	%	%	%	%	%
X	0.8	5.6	2.9	7.5	2.1	1.9
XI	0.2	4.8	1.9	6.5	1.7	1.7
XII	0.1	4.0	1.1	6.6	1.0	2.6
	1.1	14.4	5.9	20.6	4.8	6.2

The fate of the treaty and registered Indian has been far worse than the Metis as the next table illustrates. The per cent difference of Metis high school students is more than double that of the Indian students.

TABLE VIII

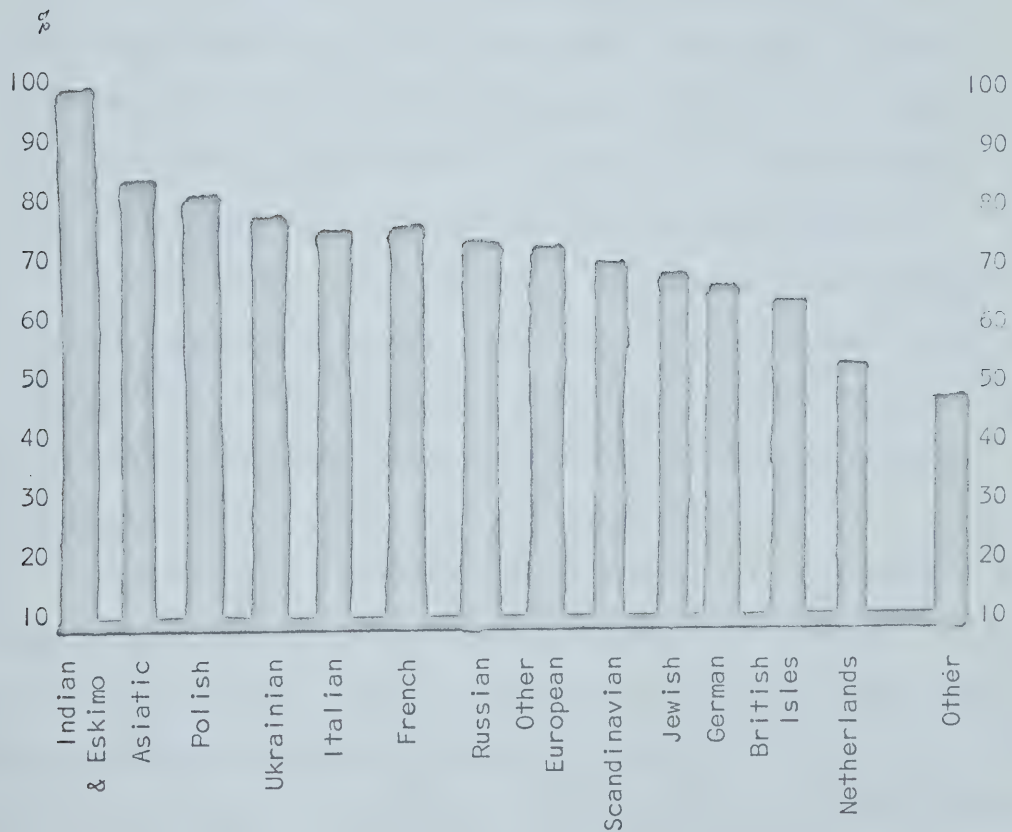
COMPARISON OF INDIAN AND METIS HIGH SCHOOL ENROLMENT, 1970

GRADE	INDIAN	METIS	DIFFERENCE
	%	%	%
X	2.3	2.9	0.6
XI	0.8	1.9	1.1
XII	0.2	1.1	0.9
	3.3	5.9	2.6

In a 1966 survey done in Census Division No. 12 which is in the northeastern portion of Alberta by V. Jansen et.al., it shows clearly that the Indian people have a low educational level.

TABLE VIII A

PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL
WITH ELEMENTARY EDUCATION OR LESS BY ETHNIC ORIGIN



IV. Age Grade Retardation

Northlands School Division

Of all the statistics and information obtained from Northland School Division, it is likely that the most significant indication of Indian-Metis education levels is reflected on the grade retardation charts. The three charts, consisting of Indian, Metis, and Indian/Metis combined compares grade levels with numbers of years of schooling. (See Tables IX, X and XI.) It is seen that in spite of the "continuous progress" policy, substantial numbers of pupils are one or more years retarded. The "percent grade retardation" figures are obtained by dividing the total number of students by grade, into the total of the respective figures below the boxed figures. The figures obtained are the percent of the total students which have repeated one or more grades since beginning school.

The age/grade retardation charts (Tables XII, XIII and XIV) show much the same information as the grade retardation charts, but it would seem not as accurately. This is due to two factors; one being that it does not take into account the fact that some children from remote areas are entering school at age 7-1/2 or older years, and also that it does not take into account the fact that some children entered school at say five and a half years or five and three quarter years and failed the first grade. These children would not have reached their eighth birthday by the end of their second school year, but would, nevertheless, be included in the seven years-Grade I class which appears as "normal" on the chart!

TABLE IX

GRADE RETARDATION OF INDIAN STUDENTS ENROLLED
IN 28 SCHOOLS IN THE NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION
JUNE, 1971

NO. OF YEARS IN SCHOOL OPP	GRADE											
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
1 Year	131											
2 Years	39	69	1									
3 Years	6	56	54	1								
4 Years	2	14	50	35								
5 Years	1	1	10	45	42	1						
6 Years	4			18	35	38	1					
7 Years	3			1	15	51	39	3				
8 Years	2				6	15	28	15	1			
9 Years	2					7	8	16	7			
10 Years								7	17			
11 Years									1			
12 Years												
13 Years												
Not Known	3											
TOTAL	26	177	140	115	100	98	112	76	41	26		
% GRADE RETARDATION	25.9	50.7	52.2	64.0	57.1	65.2	47.4	56.1	69.2			

The students between the heavy lines are progressing according to the normal pattern of one grade per year. The numbers below the heavy line indicates grade retardation, while the numbers above indicate the accelerated student.

TABLE X

GRADE RETARDATION OF METIS STUDENTS ENROLLED
IN 28 SCHOOLS IN THE NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION

JUNE 1971

NO. OF YEARS IN SCHOOL OPP	GRADE											
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
1 Year	190											
2 Years	64	123	1									
3 Years	5	50	104									
4 Years	2	1	15	68	60	1						
5 Years	2		6	18	63	70						
6 Years		1	1	15	49	68	1					
7 Years		1		4	19	40	54	1				
8 Years				2	5	15	34	23				
9 Years					1	6	10	34	8			
10 Years						2	4	6	10			
11 Years								1				
12 Years												
13 Years												
Not Known	1											
TOTAL	12	259	196	192	144	145	131	103	65	18		
% GRADE RETARDATION	26.6	37.2	45.3	58.3	51.0	48.1	46.6	63.1	55.5			

The students between the heavy lines are progressing according to the normal pattern of one grade per year. The numbers below the heavy line indicates grade retardation, while the numbers above indicate the accelerated student.

TABLE XI

GRADE RETARDATION OF INDIAN AND METIS STUDENTS ENROLLED
IN 28 SCHOOLS IN THE NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION JUNE 1971

NO. OF YEARS IN SCHOOL	OPP	GRADE											
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
1 Year	321								The students between the heavy lines are progressing according to the normal pattern of one grade per year. The numbers below the heavy line indicate grade retardation, while the numbers above indicate the accelerated student.				
2 Years	3	103	192	2									
3 Years	12	10	106	158	1								
4 Years	4	1	29	118	95	1							
5 Years	4	1	7	23	108	112	1						
6 Years	4		1	1	33	84	106	2					
7 Years	3		1		5	34	91	93	4				
8 Years	2				2	11	30	62	38	1			
9 Years	2					1	13	18	50	15			
10 Years							2	4	13	27			
11 Years									1	1			
12 Years													
13 Years													
Not Known	4												
TOTAL	38	436	336	307	244	243	243	179	106	44			
% GRADE RETARDATION		26.4	42.9	47.9	60.7	53.5	56.0	46.9	60.4	63.6			

It is felt that the most significant statistical information on the age/grade retardation charts is the average "age/grade retardation in years" figures at the bottom of the chart. However, again the method of arriving at these figures must be rationalized because of limitations of the kinds of figures which were obtained on age levels. Thus, for purposes of making an accurate interpretation of "mean age" figures on the three charts, one must compare these figures with the half grade level between the two figures shown. For example, on the chart for Indian pupils under grade one, one must compare the "mean age" of 7.2 years with six and one-half or 6.5 as being the average age of the students (half way between six and seven) because of the way the mean averages were calculated. In reality of course, this figure of 6-1/2 years is not accurate since students in the "age 6" group would include students from age six years six months to six years eleven months, and likewise, students shown in the "age 7" group are in fact from seven years zero months to seven years, six months, which depends of course on local school board policy as to age levels in which students are accepted into grade one. Thus, in reality the average age of grade one students at the end of their first school year (no failures) is about seven years, although for purposes of making a meaningful comparison with the "mean age" figure, the figure of six and one half years must be used.

As mentioned in the preamble, figures on promotions and failures of students may not be too significant because of both the policy of continuous progress of students and, as well as the somewhat arbitrary decisions which had to be made by the survey team or to what constituted promotion, conditional promotion or failure, in those primary grade classrooms using

GRADE LEVEL OF INDIAN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN 28 SCHOOLS IN THE
NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION JUNE, 1971 BY AGE GROUPING

SOURCE: YEAR END PROGRESS REPORTS, NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION

AGE YEARS	GRADE									
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	
5	OPP.									The number of students shown in the boxed squares are progressing according to the normal pattern of one grade per year. The numbers above the boxed squares gives the number of under-age students, while the numbers below gives the number of over-age students.
6										
7	1									
8	4									
9	3									
10	4									
11	2									
12	2									
13	1									
14	6									
15	1									
16	1									
17	1									
18										
TOTAL	26	177	140	115	100	98	112	76	41	26
AGE/GRADE RETARDATION	31.1	50.7	57.4	69.0	65.3	70.5	52.6	48.8	65.4	
MEAN AGE	7.2	8.7	9.8	11.0	11.9	13.1	13.6	14.4	15.8	
AGE/GRADE RETARDATION IN YEARS	.7	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.1	.9	1.3	

GRADE LEVEL OF METIS STUDENTS ENROLLED IN 28 SCHOOLS IN THE
NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION JUNE, 1971 BY AGE GROUPING

SOURCE: YEAR END PROGRESS REPORTS, NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION

AGE YEARS	GRADE	GRADE								
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
5	OPP									
6		94								
7		108	51							
8	2	45	74	36	1					
9	2	10	45	82	27					
10	3	2	16	43	54	22	1			
11	1		6	26	34	49	17	2		
12			3	4	18	40	49	24	1	
13	1		1	1	8	24	31	37	7	
14	3					8	18	22	26	4
15					2	2	14	13	22	3
16							1	5	8	6
17									1	5
18										
TOTAL	12	259	196	192	144	145	131	103	65	18
% AGE/GRADE RETARDATION		22.0	36.2	38.5	43.1	51.0	48.9	38.8	47.7	61.1
MEAN AGE		6.9	8.3	9.4	10.5	11.7	12.7	13.3	14.5	15.7
AGE/GRADE RETARDATION IN YEARS		.4	.8	.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	.8	1.0	1.2

The number of students shown in the boxed squares are progressing according to the normal pattern of one grade per year. The numbers above the boxed squares gives the number of under-age students, while the numbers below gives the number of over-age students.

TABLE XIV

GRADE LEVEL OF INDIAN AND METIS STUDENTS ENROLLED IN 28 SCHOOLS IN THE
NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION JUNE, 1971 BY AGE GROUPING

SOURCE: YEAR END PROGRESS REPORTS, NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION

AGE YEARS	GRADE											
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX			
5	OPP.							The number of students shown in the boxed squares are progressing according to the normal pattern of one grade per year. The numbers above the boxed squares gives the number of under-age students, while the numbers below gives the number of over-age students.				
6		128										
7	1	196	66	1								
8	6	89	128	46	1							
9	5	17	91	120	32	1						
10	7	4	33	82	80	31	2					
11	3	2	13	47	76	73	22			4		
12	2		3	8	39	80	76			31	3	
13	2		2		13	37	73			64	14	
14	9				1	17	39			49	38	7
15	1				2	4	28			26	35	9
16	1			1			3			5	14	17
17	1										2	10
18												1
TOTAL	38	436	336	307	244	243	243			179	106	44
% AGE/GRADE RETARDATION		25.7	42.3	45.6	53.7	56.8	58.8			44.7	48.1	63.6
MEAN AGE		7.0	8.5	9.5	10.7	11.8	12.9			13.4	14.5	15.8
AGE/GRADE RETARDATION IN YEARS		.5	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4			.9	1.0	1.3

only the "progress level" system. However, it was decided by the survey team to use these figures, as it was felt that they are representative enough to show indications of promotion and failure rates, if not the absolute figures for promotions and failures. Tables XV, XVI, and XVII give this data.

Other Studies

There appears to be very little data available on age/grade retardation in previous years or in other locations in Alberta. Out of some ten reports and studies reviewed which dealt with the Indian and Metis in Alberta, nearly all did not have any information on age/grade retardation, although several had figures on enrolment and drop-out rates.

In a 1960 study undertaken by Dr. J. W. Chalmers, on Metis children, some figures were quoted on age/grade retardation. Table XVIII uses Chalmers 1960 figures on Metis children residing in six inspectorates in Northern Alberta, and compares them with Northland's figures on Metis children at June 1971. This was made necessary because Northland School Division was non-existent in 1960 (indeed it appears that many children in that area did not have access to school facilities) and we are thus not able to make a comparison in this area at different periods of time. However, the six inspectorates at that time included some of the area now included in Northland School Division. This comparison indicates some improvement in the educational standards of Metis students during the past ten years.

PROMOTION AND FAILURE DATA OF
INDIAN STUDENTS IN NORTHLAND
SCHOOL DIVISION AT JUNE 30/71

(Number and Percentage Figures Shown)

GRADE	PASSED	FAILED GRADE	CONDIT. PASS	TOTAL
I	112 63.3	45 25.4	20 11.3	177 100
II	90 64.3	37 26.4	13 9.3	140 100
III	72 62.6	17 14.8	26 22.6	115 100
IV	58 58.0	21 21.0	21 21.0	100 100
V	78 79.6	6 6.1	14 14.3	98 100
VI	83 74.1	17 15.2	12 10.7	112 100
VII	48 63.2	20 26.3	8 10.5	76 100
VIII	28 68.3	12 29.3	1 2.4	41 100
IX	12 46.1	4 15.4	10 38.5	26 100
X				
XI				
XII				
TOTAL	581	179	125	885
PERCENT	65.7	20.2	14.1	100

Source: Year End Progress Reports, Northland School Division

TABLE XVI

PROMOTION AND FAILURE DATA OF
METIS STUDENTS IN NORTHLAND
SCHOOL DIVISION AT JUNE 30/71

(Number and Percentage Figures Shown)

GRADE	PASSED	FAILED GRADE	CONDIT. PASS	TOTAL
I	151 58.3	66 25.5	42 16.2	259 100
II	127 64.8	25 12.8	44 22.4	196 100
III	122 63.5	29 15.1	41 21.4	192 100
IV	105 72.9	13 9.0	26 18.1	144 100
V	113 77.9	13 9.0	19 13.1	145 100
VI	92 70.2	19 14.5	20 15.3	131 100
VII	61 59.2	20 19.4	22 21.4	103 100
VIII	42 64.6	10 15.4	13 20.0	65 100
IX	7 38.9	7 38.9	4 22.2	18 100
X				
XI				
XII				
TOTAL	820	202	231	1253
PERCENT	65.5	16.1	18.4	100

Source: Year End Progress Reports, Northland School Division

TABLE XVII

22

PROMOTION AND FAILURE DATA OF
INDIAN AND METIS STUDENTS IN
NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION AT
JUNE 30/71

(Number and Percentage Figures Shown)

GRADE	PASSED	FAILED GRADE	CONDIT. PASS	TOTAL
I	263 60.3	111 25.5	62 14.2	436 100
II	217 64.6	62 18.4	57 17.0	336 100
III	194 63.2	46 15.0	67 21.8	307 100
IV	163 66.8	34 13.9	47 18.3	244 100
V	191 78.6	19 7.8	33 13.6	243 100
VI	175 72.0	36 14.8	32 13.2	243 100
VII	109 60.9	40 22.3	30 16.8	179 100
VIII	70 66.0	22 20.8	14 13.2	106 100
IX	19 43.2	11 25.0	14 31.8	44 100
X				
XI				
XII				
TOTAL	1401	381	356	2138
PERCENT	65.5	17.8	16.7	100

Source: Year End Progress Reports, Northland School Division

TABLE XVII I

AGE/GRADE RETARDATION COMPARISON OF METIS CHILDREN
IN SIX INSPECTORATES IN ALBERTA IN 1960 WITH THE METIS
CHILDREN IN NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION AT JUNE 30, 1971

(THE SIX 1960 INSPECTORATES WERE: FORT VERMILION, HIGH PRAIRIE,
PEACE RIVER, EAST SMOKY, ATHABASCA, AND LAC LA BICHE)

GRADE	NORMAL AGE	(6 INSPECTORATES) 1960 METIS STUDENTS		(NORTHLAND) 1971 METIS STUDENTS	
		NUMBER OF STUDENTS	% NORMAL AGE	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	% NORMAL AGE
1	7	602	68.1	259	78.0
2	8	360	42.8	196	63.8
3	9	373	37.5	192	61.5
4	10	279	33.8	144	56.9
5	11	229	34.4	145	49.0
6	12	214	30.8	131	51.1
7	13	135	37.0	103	61.2
8	14	76	40.8	65	52.3
9	15	55	58.3	18	38.9
TOTALS		2323		1253	

Table XIX also uses some of Chalmers figures this time on the age/grade retardation rate on total Alberta students to the Grade Nine level for the year 1959, and compares them to combined figures for Indian and Metis students in Northland at June 1971. It is seen that the average retardation rate for the Indian and Metis students in 1971 is still several times as great as the retardation rate for Alberta students in 1960, in spite of some apparent decrease in the retardation rate for Indian and Metis students during the ten year period.

NOTE:

On Charts IX to XIV inclusive, the figures shown in the column on the extreme right hand side under "OPP." refer to students attending an "Opportunity Room". It was not possible to categorize these students by grade, nor promotion-failure grouping.

TABLE XIX

AGE/GRADE RETARDATION COMPARISON OF
ALL ALBERTA PUPILS IN 1959 WITH INDIAN AND
METIS CHILDREN IN THE NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION
AT JUNE 30TH, 1971

		TOTAL ALBERTA STUDENTS 1959			NORTHLAND INDIAN & METIS STUDENTS JUNE 1971		
GRADE	NORMAL AGE	NO. OF STUDENTS	NORMAL AGE %	OVER NORMAL AGE %	NO. OF STUDENTS	NORMAL AGE %	OVER NORMAL AGE %
1	7	30,716	95.1	4.9	436	74.3	25.7
2	8	28,112	91.9	8.1	336	57.7	42.3
3	9	26,895	89.2	10.8	307	54.4	45.6
4	10	26,061	87.1	12.9	244	46.3	53.7
5	11	26,056	84.3	15.7	243	43.2	56.8
6	12	25,631	84.6	15.4	243	41.2	58.8
7	13	22,944	81.3	18.7	179	55.3	44.7
8	14	19,569	79.4	20.6	106	51.9	48.1
9	15	18,586	79.9	20.1	44	36.4	63.6
		224,570			2,138		

SOURCE: Year End Progress Reports, Northland School Division
and Chalmers, 1960.

V. TEACHER CERTIFICATION, EXPERIENCE AND MOBILITY

An attempt has been made to examine the teaching force of the Northland School Division in hopes of obtaining an insight into the type of teacher that the Indian and Metis students are meeting in their classrooms. Because of the limitations of time the approach, as well as the findings are somewhat superficial.

Data was made available to the investigating team by Northland School Division on the current school year staff, 1971-72, as well as their teaching force of 1969-70. The 1970-71 figures were not available.

Table XX shows the number and percentage distribution of the certification of the Northland teaching staff for the school year of 1969-70. Provincial figures for the same academic year were not available, however, figures were obtained for teachers across the province for the previous year 1968-69. A comparison was possible based on figures for teachers in centre of less than 30,000 population.

This comparison shows that 38 per cent of Northland teachers held a professional teaching certificate while the provincial figure for their counterparts was 42.7 per cent. Northland teachers may not have had as many teachers who were as well qualified, however, they did not have as many displaying minimal qualifications either. The provincial figures showed that 22 per cent of the teachers in these smaller population centres held a Junior certification while only 16.3 per cent of Northland teachers fell in this category.

TABLE XX
DISTRIBUTION BY CERTIFICATION
(Northland School Division Staff Compared to Provincial Teachers
in Centres of Less Than 30,000 Population 1969-70)

	NORTHLAND SCHOOL DISTRICT 1969-70		PROVINCIAL * 1968-69	
	N	%	N	%
Professional	49	38.0	4,285	42.7
Standard	59	45.7	2,938	29.3
Junior	21	16.3	2,204	22.0
Other	--	----	600	6.0
TOTAL	129	100.0	10,027	100.0

*Figures taken from "The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1970"
The Alberta Teachers' Association, June, 1971

Provincial statistics were available for the year 1969-70 where teacher experience was concerned. Table XXI allows a direct comparison to be made between these figures and the Northland teaching staff experience for the similar year. A quick perusal reveals that Northland had a slightly higher percentage of their teachers in categories of less experience, however, the differences would certainly not seem to be great. The largest percentage difference occurs at the ten or more years of experience level, one-third of the Northland staff fell in this category while 42.1 per cent of the provincial teachers had this much experience.

Table XXII begins to indicate one area where Northland teachers do differ from their provincial counterparts. This table compares the number of years of teaching experience that have been accumulated by the staffs with their present employing board. Here again, 1969-70 figures were not available on a provincial basis, there were, however, statistics for the 1968-69 academic year based on teachers in schools of ten classrooms or less. These figures were considered to be quite comparable for the Northland staff as the vast majority of their schools fall into this category.

It is quite obvious from a quick comparison of the two sets of figures that the Northland teachers spend fewer years with their board before leaving than does the average teacher in a small school in other parts of Alberta. This is dramatically pointed out when the lower end of the scale is examined. 51.2 per cent of the Northland teachers, that is more than half, had one year or less with Northland in the year 1969-70. The provincially based figure drops to 34.3 per cent for the same category.

TABLE XXI

COMPARISON OF PROVINCIAL AND NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION
TEACHING FORCE BY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE, 1969-70

		1 or less	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 or more	TOTAL
Northland School	NO.	22	11	12	9	6	9	9	6	2	43	129
District	%	17.1	8.5	9.3	7.0	4.6	7.0	7.0	4.6	1.6	33.3	100.0
Provincial*	NO.	5,433	1,383	1,290	1,146	1,027	949	912	774	653	8,442	20,059
	%	17.4	6.9	6.4	5.7	5.1	4.7	4.5	3.9	3.3	42.1	100.0

*Figures taken from "The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1970", The Alberta Teachers Association, June, 1971

TABLE XXI

YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE WITH PRESENT EMPLOYING BOARD
 (Northland School Division Staff 1969-70 Compared to Provincial Teachers, 1968-69
 in Schools of 10 Classrooms or Less)

		10 or less	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10 or more	TOTAL
Northland School District (median years=1.9)	NO.	66	20	11	12	7	4	3	5	1	0	129
	%	51.2	15.5	8.5	9.3	5.4	3.1	2.3	3.9	.8	0	100.0
Provincial*	NO.	320	200	178	134	113	90	112	89	69	582	2,387
(Median years=4.0)	%	34.3	8.4	7.5	5.6	4.7	3.8	4.7	3.7	2.9	24.4	100.0

*Figures taken from "The Alberta Teaching Force, September, 1969" The Alberta Teachers' Association, May, 1970

The upper end of the scale loses some of its relevance when it is recalled that Northland School Division was only established nine years prior to the compiling of these statistics. However, it is still quite possible to detect a sharper decline after the fifth year of experience with those of the provincial base.

Perhaps more meaningful is the median figure of 1.9 years with Northland as compared to 4.0 years for the other teachers in smaller schools in the province. This is more than twice the median teaching experience in other school divisions than for the teachers with the Northland Board.

Table XXIII tends to add support to the previous table. It shows that the teachers of Northland School Division would appear to be much more mobile than those of similar sized schools in the rest of the province. 36.8 per cent of those teaching for Northland left at the end of June 1970, while only 13.3 per cent of their provincial counterparts moved.

One might generalize from this data that although Northland teachers are not noticeably less qualified or experience when they are hired, they do not, however, tend to stay as long as do teachers with other boards in the province.

Tables XXII and XXIII would lead to many questions yet unanswered. The fact that teachers stay for a shorter period of time with Northland than with other school divisions may well be a more serious problem than it appears on the surface.

Perhaps the problem may best be conveyed by way on an example. Let us take two teachers, both female with the same education and the same

TABLE XXIII

TEACHER MOBILITY

(Northland School Division Staff Compared to Provincial Teachers in Schools of 15 Classrooms or Less, June 1970)			
	TOTAL NO. OF TEACHERS	NO. LEAVING IN JUNE	%
Northland School Division	133	49	36.8
Province *	5,031	774	15.3

*Figures taken from "Geographic and Occupational Mobility of Alberta Teachers", The Alberta Teachers' Association, September 1971, Page 5.

education and background experience. In Alberta, this background experience is most likely to mean that this teacher is "white, middle-class" with little or no contact with Indians or Metis. Their course work at University will most likely be from a standard program with little probability of course work in the area of Intercultural Education.

One of the teachers goes to a smaller school in Southern Alberta, say Pincher Creek. There the teacher finds that she is placed in a familiar setting, teaching the same sort of children that she has spent her life with. Her training has been designed for the sort of teaching she finds herself doing. If she finds a problem developing, she has colleagues with who have most likely been on staff in that school for a number of years, to whom she can turn. If the need arises, she can always pick up the telephone and contact the parents of her pupils.

The other teacher applies for a job with the Northland School Division and is assigned to the school at Atikameg. The situation is completely foreign to her. The English spoken by her students is hesitant and limited. They have what appears to be insurmountable reading problems. The home situation is completely foreign to her and she is frightened at the thought of going down to speak to the parents, besides, they probably do not speak English anyway. There is less chance of anyone being on staff with a great deal of experience in this type of community.

How long does it take a teacher with such a radically different background to become effective within that community? This, of course, will vary greatly with the individual, some may never adjust while others may make a rapid transformation. Assuming, however, that time

improve that teacher's effectiveness, just how much time does it take? Two years? That is roughly how long we can expect her to stay before a new recruit takes her place and the process is repeated.

If the assumptions implied in this illustration are true, then the more rapid turnover of Northland teachers becomes much more critical in the Indian-Metis communities than in other parts of Alberta. The role of Intercultural Education becomes very important for the teachers going into these situations.

Some of the questions that quickly come to mind, some that may well bear an attempt at obtaining answers for:

1. What percentage of teachers in Indian-Metis communities have had Intercultural courses during their University training?
2. How effective are these courses in preparing them to meet the problems of their students?
3. Why do they go to these communities?
4. What sort of teacher fits into these situations?

VI TEACHER-AIDES AND COUNSELLOR-AIDES

Teacher Aides

Little helpful information is available on teacher-aides on a provincial level. Two studies were carried out by the Alberta Teachers' Association, one in 1968 and the second in 1970. However, because of the definition they applied, the results of their study holds little value for our purposes. They simply classified all non-certificated school personnel as teacher-aides. This included such things as secretarial, clerical help as well as such things as volunteer helpers in lunch rooms, libraries and sports programs.

For the purposes of this study, a much more limited definition of the teacher-aide would seem to be desirable. Primarily, our interest will be with those aides which are hired with the intent of assisting the school or individual teachers in overcoming language, cultural differences, and parental communications. Northland School Division had twenty-four such persons on staff in September of this year. Figures from other school divisions are not available at this time.

Counsellor-Aides

This type of aide differs from the teacher-aide in that they work on a school basis rather than assigned to any specific classroom or teachers. They are intended to interpret the goals and objectives of the students to the school as well as interpreting the school's objectives to the individual students. They take on the duties of an attendance officer as well as acting as a communication link between the school and the parents.

Northland has five such persons functioning in this role. At this time, information is not available from other school divisions.

It may be interesting to note that one of the findings of a comprehensive study carried out in June of 1971 by the Alberta Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation, "A Study of Native Youth in Edmonton", was that Native students in the Edmonton Public School System were generally dissatisfied with the counselling services provided by their respective schools than were the white students. The study goes on to recommend "that the present counselling program in the schools be carefully analyzed and modified to help the Native youth more adequately, possibly implementing Native resources in this program." (Siperko, 1971)

It seems that a survey to teacher-aides and counsellor-aides is needed to ascertain exactly how many persons are working in this area. There is also a complete lack of any information as to the effectiveness or the value of the assistance rendered by these people.

Programs

Here again little information is available on just what is being done to adjust the provincial curriculum to the Indian and Metis student by the various schools or their divisions. Most of what is reported here will simply be the impressions of the consultants who work in this area.

There would seem to be little consistency or continuity in what is being done in these areas. Northland School Division has brought in a modified Social Studies program in an attempt to adjust to their students. Isolated schools and individual teachers have produced curriculum adjustments at various levels, however, there would seem to be little communication between schools or teachers as to what has been tried or what is successful and what is not successful. Continuity is a great problem.

One teacher may be a great innovator and have some highly successful projects developed; however, when she leaves that particular school, her projects leave with her and someone new arrives and starts all over again.

Many of the teachers who have been away from University for some time appear to have failed to keep up with even the most popular of new ideas in the area of Intercultural Education. This could well be partly due to the lack of a specialist council in this area. One conference reports that when he was talking with two Grade One teachers from a school which has roughly 50 per cent Indian and Metis population, he mentioned the concept of "teaching English as a second language". Neither teacher was familiar with the concept, even though, English, for more than one-half of their pupils was not their mother tongue.

It would seem that some assessment of exactly what is taking place in this area of curriculum adjustment is necessary, not only for the purposes of this Task Force, but on a continuing basis as well. Some agency, such as the Department of Education Regional Offices should act as a clearinghouse for the collection and distribution of effective curriculum innovations.

VII. LANGUAGE

As yet, the Task Force has not carried out any formal surveys with regard to English language competency among Indian and Metis students in Alberta. Though the problem seems to be a major one as expressed by teachers and Indian people, few hard data statistics are available.

Hatt (1967) reports that in a study at Lac La Biche, teachers estimated that 61% of the Metis children had language difficulty.

Indian Affairs Educational Field Handbook reports a direct relationship between a second language handicap and non-promotion percentage in Federal schools (table XXIV).

Personnel from the Northland School Division indicate that as many as 70 to 80% of the Native children do not speak the English language upon entering school.

Many teachers also contend that though many children do have a basic knowledge of the English language, there remains the problem of being able to conceptualize and symbolize at the abstract level. They experience more difficulty in discriminating sounds and in articulating speech. Little achievement motivation is derived from the home; the new language, often not understood, is subsequently not reinforced. This is consistent also with the findings of the Hawthorn Report, Part II, 1967.

TABLE XXIV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECOND LANGUAGE HANDICAP AND NON-PROMOTION PERCENTAGE IN FEDERAL SCHOOLS - KINDERGARTEN TO GRADE FOUR.

REGIONS	(a) Indian Registry Population	(b) 1966-67 Pre-1 enrolment	(c) 1966-67 Grade 1 enrolment	(d) Approx. % of Gr. 1 readiness, 1966-67		(f) Second language fluency			(g) Non-promotion Percentage 1964-65				(j) Gr. 1 failures in (i) attributed to second language handicap 1964-65	(k) Correlation of (i) col. with e & (f)
				(d) K att.	(e) No K	(f) Does not speak	(g) Speaks a little	(h) Total lack	(g) I II III IV					
									(i) col.					
Maritimes	243	154	202	75%	25%	43%	28%	71%	14%	7%	10%	5%	25%	(e) col.
Quebec	633	633	680	100%	0%	58%	9%	67%	10	6	7	7	50%	(f)
Ontario	1,743	672	1,123	50%	50%	54%	27%	52%	12	7	8	7	50%	e & (f)
Manitoba	1,194	392	1,105	36%	64%	52%	21%	73%	10	5	4	6	55%	e & (f)
Saskatchewan	1,248	571	966	66%	34%	37%	17%	54%	14	8	11	6	37%	e & (f)
Alberta	998	353	632	50%	50%	42%	30%	72%	12	6	6	5	25%	e & (f)
B.C.	1,743	375	1,013	30%	70%	11%	20%	31%	17	19	4	5	30%	h
TOTAL	7,802	3,150	5,721										*Res. & Day School tab.	

Source: Indian Affairs Education Division Field Handbook

VIII KINDERGARTENS AND PLAY SCHOOLS

Northland School Division

Northland School Division has no kindergartens. The Superintendent for Northland, Mr. William Zielinsky informed the survey team that there were three play schools within the zone. They are located at Calling Lake, Fort McKay and Desmarais and are sponsored respectively by the Roman Catholic Church, Preventative Social Services and Indian Affairs. Figures on enrolment were not available from the Northland office, and time did not permit the contacting of the respective areas to obtain further information.

High Prairie School Division

It is known that within the High Prairie School Division, eight play schools are in operation. They are under the sponsorship of the Preventative Social Services and the High Prairie School Division; also are partly funded by Alberta Innovative Projects.

The City of Edmonton Kindergarten Programs

The City of Edmonton has established fourteen kindergarten programs in the disadvantaged areas of the city. It is not known how many Indian and Metis pre-school children living in the city are enrolled in these programs.

The Need for Kindergarten Programs

There is little doubt in the minds of educators that kindergarten and play school programs do enhance the chances of success in future schooling of the Native child, especially in the case of those children from the more remote areas, whose knowledge of the English language when entering school is often minimal. However, hard core data supporting this premise is not easily come by. A statistical chart prepared by the Indian Affairs Branch in 1967 (Table XXV) makes a comparison

of kindergarten enrolment in the year 1959-1960 with Grade 7 enrolment in 1966-1967. However, the figures given are not strongly indicative of the relationship of the value of kindergartens in decreasing the dropout rate in future years of schooling. Statistics making a comparison of kindergarten enrolment with the dropout rate in later school years for other periods of time were not available.

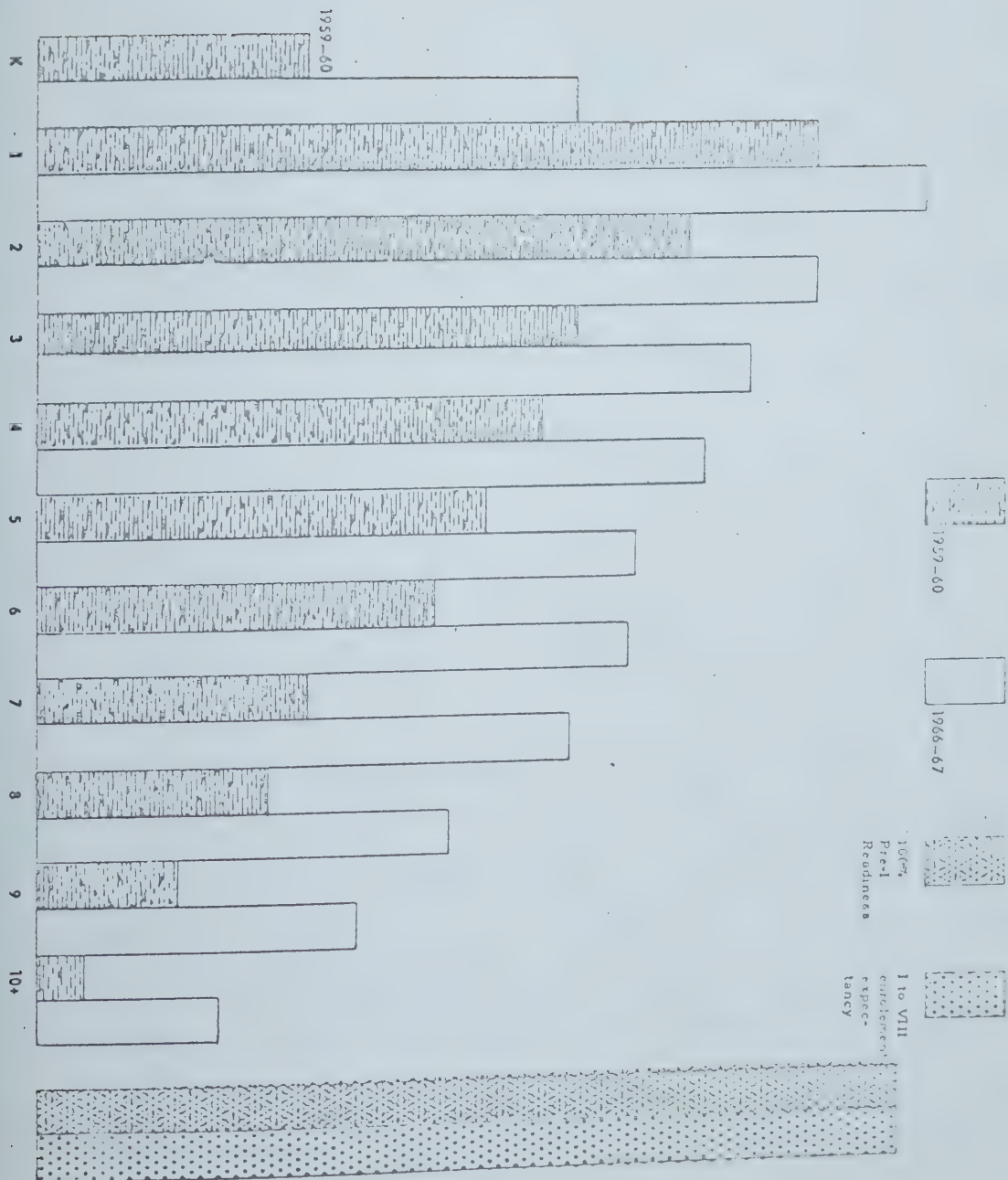
PARENT-CHILD DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS FOR NATIVE
CHILDREN BEING FUNDED UNDER PREVENTIVE SOCIAL SERVICES

	<u>ENROLLMENT</u>	<u>DURATION</u>
Anzac Playschool	10	- 8-10 months
Hythe Preschool Program	20	- 4 months
Kikino Readiness School	24	- 4 months
Caslan Readiness School	10	- 2 months
Big Prairie & Gift Lake Parent-Child Development	15	- 2½ months
Calling Lake Parent-Child Development	19	- 8 months
Smith Parent-Child Development	20	- 6 months
Fort McKay Preschool	15	- 4 months
Wabasca Preschool	45	- 10 months
High Prairie Parent-Child Development	5	- 10 months
Lac La Biche Playschool	25	- 6 months
Owl River Preschool	4	- 6 months
<u>Proposed</u>		
Janvier	25	- 10 months

TABLE XXV

RELATIVE LOSS OF THE KINDERGARTEN PROGRAM TO DROP-OUT DECREASE BASED ON FEDERAL AND NON-FEDERAL SC. SOLS AND INDIVIDUAL PUPIL ENROLLMENT

42



Desirable projection

The percentage drop-out ratio for grade 7 is directly proportional to the kindergarten school readiness percentages.

IX THE URBAN SETTING--EDMONTON AND CALGARY

Statistical information on Native school enrolment in the cities of Edmonton and Calgary is very limited. No information is available on the city of Calgary. A recent study by Card (1970) on Native Youth in Edmonton does reveal some significant data. However, the study deals with only the students between ages 12 and 25. While Card (1970) reports that all Native youth between the ages of 12 and 25 are included in his study, students were not categorized by grade levels. Rather they were categorized according to elementary, junior and senior levels.

This section will summarize the results of Card's Study.

Card (1970) reports that an approximate number of 885 Indian, Metis and Eskimo students between the ages of 12 and 25 were enrolled in Edmonton schools. Of the 885 students, 662 were known for certain to be of either Indian, Metis or Eskimo origin. Table XXVI shows the students classified by ethnicity. Of the 662 students, 10 were Eskimo origin (1.5 per cent).

More Research in Edmonton The task force has been in contact with the Edmonton school authorities with regard to taking a survey of Native student enrolment. They have advised us that they are reluctant to have such surveys carried out, mainly because of the philosophy of the system that children of every background are equal in all respects. However, if a formal request was made through the proper channels, such a survey would be possible.

Calgary No contact has been established with Calgary school authorities.

TABLE XXVI
STUDENTS OF NATIVE CANADIAN ANCESTRY, CLASSIFIED BY ETHNICITY
RESIDENT IN EDMONTON, MAY, 1970
(12-25 years of age)

ETHNICITY	SEX		AGE		GRADE LEVEL			SCHOOL			TOTAL
	M	F	under 20	over 20	elementary	junior high	senior high	public	separate	other	
INDIAN	120	149	235	34	52	91	103	95	151	23	269
METIS	178	205	374	9	113	242	30	111	262	10	383
ESKIMO	2	8	5	5	4	0	1	5	0	5	10
TOTAL	300	362	614	48	169	333	134	211	413	38	662

Percentage distribution of Native student by ethnicity between the ages of 12 and 25 shown on the following table.

TABLE XXVII

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION
 STUDENTS OF NATIVE CANADIAN ANCESTRY, CLASSIFIED BY ETHNICITY
 RESIDENT IN EDMONTON, MAY 1970

N=662)

12-25 years of age)

ETHNICITY	SEX		AGE		GRADE LEVEL			SCHOOL			TOT.
	M	F	under 20	over 20	elementary	junior high	senior high	public	separate	other	
INDIAN	13.1	22.5	35.5	5.1	7.9	13.8	15.6	14.3	22.8	3.5	40.6%
METIS	20.9	31.0	56.4	1.5	15.7	36.4	4.2	16.6	39.6	1.5	57.9%
ESKIMO	0.3	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.8	0.0	0.8	1.5%
TOTAL	45.3	54.7	92.9	7.1	24.2	50.2	19.9	31.8	62.5	5.7	100.0%

X. FACING THE PROBLEMS IN NATIVE EDUCATION

The foregoing pages indicate a serious problem in education of the Native child. As to actually what the basis is or what the underlying factors involved are in this problem is not wholly agreed upon by people concerned with Native education. Certainly such things as poverty, language difficulties, under experience and under educated teachers, inadequate school facilities, home environment and low self-image of the Native child are factors to be considered. However, it is felt that other factors should be considered, and thus two reports have been included as appendices to this survey which indicate that other more basic cultural factors may be involved as well. The first article is from the Hawthorne Report and is entitled: "The Indian and Formal Education." The second article concerns a study conducted by Dr. Leslie R. Gue of the University of Alberta entitled: "A Comparative Study of Value Orientations in an Alberta Native Community".

Annual Report, Indian Education, Alberta, 1970-71.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

THE INDIAN AND FORMAL EDUCATION*

(*Hawthorn, H.B., Ed. - A Survey of the Contemporary Indians of Canada - pp. 127-130, Ottawa, Indian Affairs Branch, 1967.)

Pre-School Socialization

"It might be well to restate some of the principal findings. The early training of Indian children cannot be paralled or equated with the process of training which non-Indian children are undergoing at the same time. General orientations, values, routines and relationships vary among Social systems and the child from each develops a completely different world view. As a result, when Indian and non-Indian children appear at school initially their expectations are different, they perceive things differently, their familiarity with the material phenomena of the school is different and their behaviour is governed by differing sets of rules. There is no basis, theoretical or real, in these cultural differences on which to assume any lesser degree of potential ability or motivation on the part of either child.

Conflicting School Patterns

The differences in general orientation ultimately prove to be crucial for the Indian child. School expectations, rewards and punishment, classroom procedures and related factors tend to enhance and complement the early learning of the non-Indian child. However, the school process interrupts or conflicts with the learning process of the Indian child forcing him to unlearn, relearn and acquire new learning in areas which he should have at his disposal at school entry if he is to progress at the same rate and in similar ways as his non-Indian classmates.

Increasing Failure

The Indian child falls behind immediately because he has to acquire many of the skills the non-Indian children already possess upon school entry. He also has to become reoriented so that he can communicate with the teacher and meet the expectations of the school. Some factors are beyond his control, such as punctuality, and so he fails to meet expectations. As negative sanctions are applied throughout the early school years for behaviour which he cannot control or adjust and as he trails along behind his non-Indian peers, the pursuit of success becomes obviously futile and motivation decreases. Failure increases. The image of the Indian student as a dull, retarded student without ambition becomes the school stereotype, and the child is constrained to fill the role.

Teacher-Pupil Conflict

Major areas of conflict experienced in the contact between Indian pupil and White teacher concern autonomy, discipline, competition, time and language. These are conflicts of their respective cultures. Many Indian groups consider the child autonomous between two and three years of age. From this time on he is not considered a child but a person. He is left free to create his own routines, make many decisions, play at and learn things which interest him and in general to develop independent of stringent parental guidance and control. The child becomes self-sufficient in many ways. His days and hours are relatively unstructured. Upon entering school, he has to learn to conform, to adapt to a schedule of activities, to learn to participate in things whether or not they interest him and to become subservient to the constant demands of another individual.

Closely connected with the concept of autonomy is the practice of discipline. Discipline in an Indian community is seldom harsh and rarely physical. (Discipline should be discriminated from the physical abuse of children by adults who are quarreling and drinking.) Adults do not establish rigid sets of rules to control the child. Often he is not punished even when he commits an offence against a known rule; adults reason that he will learn that others will be ashamed of him, or will mock him or reject him if he persists in such behaviour. These are strong and compelling forces of social control but they do not constitute as narrow a disciplinary margin as do tight and rigid systems of rules with set punishments for infractions. There is much leeway on an age-graded basis in determining acceptable behaviour in an Indian community.

The child at home feels his way along the path to learning what constitutes acceptable behaviour. In school, no child is free to learn through trial and error; the rules are established and the punishments for infractions are defined. One difficulty the Indian child encounters is in learning what the rules are since many of them are implicitly shared and understood by members of the majority group and do not get discussion until after an infraction has occurred. The Indian child has little opportunity to learn the rules directly, since all are expected to know them. He begins to feel hurt and confused as well as unjustly treated when he realizes that he is being punished for things he does not know and understand and over which he often has no control.

Conflicting Values

Competition is a cultural phenomenon which may or may not be a part of the Indian child's background. In many Indian cultures, competition is a strong element and Indian students from such groups should have no major difficulties in engaging in competitive processes in the classroom provided they have the background of information necessary to compete. For other Indian groups, however, cooperation rather than competition is valued. Children from these groups are perplexed when scolded for providing the answer for another child or doing his work with him. Since many of the rewards of the school system are based on competitive methods of teaching ("See who can finish the problems on page ten first") the Indian child from a non-competitive

orientation tends to gain much less recognition and reward than his more competitive peers. Given twelve problems and the motivation to "See who can finish first," the non-Indian child may race through and have five errors but complete the work; the Indian child may have completed seven sums correctly with the others untouched. The non-Indian child is commended for completing his work and told to correct his errors. The Indian child is reprimanded for being slow and not completing his paper. The psychological atmosphere for each is considerably different.

Opposing Concepts

Time and schedules are major points of conflict between school and Indian students. The routines of an Indian home and the general orientation of the community to time and schedules are ones of general flexibility. The school does not run on flexible schedules nor could it; it expects the students to meet schedules with little allowance for deviance. The Indian student who walks to school is more often late than punctual; bus students are either punctual or absent. The Indian child also has to learn to conform to scheduled activities during the school day. Many non-Indian children also have to learn this but are helped by relatively consistent scheduling of meals and bedtimes and hours of awakening which not only routinize their lives but help them learn the concept of time. The Indian child often eats when hungry and sleeps when tired. In over-crowded houses, children follow adult schedules which means that they retire late and have insufficient sleep if they get up in the morning to get to school. They often are late in arising because adults are not up to awaken them.

Time subjects the Indian student to reprimands and to having to learn to value something which is contradictory to his past experience. The young child seldom manages to resolve this problem.

Communication Breakdown

Language is a complex issue with many variants from locality to locality. For the child who comes from a non-English speaking home, as is the case in many northern areas, the problem is to learn a new language. This is perhaps the least complex of all the variables because in such instances the child can learn English from an English-speaking teacher and peers. Such a necessity retards the educational progress of the child initially but may give him good grounding for later years.

The child who comes from the home where English is spoken by parents as a second language probably speaks "Indian-English." This is a variant in which English structure and words are used but in which forms and meanings often vary from the standard ones of the school; and although the child who speaks Indian-English is viewed as an English speaker by the school, in most cases he is as much in need of instruction in language as the non-English speaking child.

Indian children also report they are confused by the constant stream of talk that goes on in the classroom. Some Indian children are used to relative quiet in the home with conversation limited in frequency and quantity. These children complain that the classroom is noisy and that they have difficulty keeping their attention focussed on the conversation of the teacher. This difficulty is compounded by the language difference cited above. The children tend to get discouraged at their failure to communicate with the teacher and vice-versa and withdraw into the silence by "tuning out." This is not unique to the Indian child, but the non-Indian child has the advantage of at least understanding what is being said when he tunes in again.

Indian children expressed hurt at being "yelled at" by the teacher. In our observation, in most instances teachers thought to be yelling were using normal teaching voices and were not angry or unpleasant. In many Indian homes a quiet tone of voice is usual, but raucous and strident tones are also common. The explanation may be that the Indian child is overwhelmed by the diversity of elements of language he has not mastered and that they produce a combination whose incomprehensibility he expresses in his complaint that teachers are offensively noisy.

Motivation and Momentum

The question of motivation of the Indian student is a complex one which is not easily unravelled. No studies have found that the Indian child is less motivated to succeed than the non-Indian. Pilot studies undertaken during the course of this project appear to indicate that the motivation of Indian students is as high as that of non-Indians and higher in some instances. Nevertheless, the study also indicates a sharp drop in motivation for achievement after a few years in school. Comparatively, White Canadian children tend to increase motivation for achievement in school with each year in school. The diversity can perhaps be explained by differences of experience in success and in support from significant adults.

The non-Indian child gains momentum for achievement both through success in school and through parental pressure and support to succeed. As the child grows older his success becomes more important and the pressure and support from home is increased on the premise that he must succeed in school if he is to succeed in life.

The Indian child's experience is considerably different. He loses momentum through the early school years because he experiences more failure than success. The goals toward which he is striving become less realistic as he matures. Economic and social mobility do not correlate as closely with educational progress for the Indian student as they do for the non-Indian child who knows people who work and who have certain jobs because they have specific training or education. The Indian community and the child's parents in particular often do not see school achievement as essential to future success.

Consequently, home rewards for good school achievement are virtually unknown and punishments for failure hardly exist. Indian pressures for achievement are directed toward things which are more significant to the community than achievement in school. Similarly, until the child's school experience alters and the system of rewards becomes germane to him and he has some opportunity to succeed it is likely that motivation will continue to decrease with each year in school.

Conclusion

In sum, the atmosphere of the school, the routines, the rewards, and the expectations provide a critically different experience for the Indian child than for the non-Indian. Discontinuity of socialization, repeated failure, discrimination and lack of significance of the educational process in the life of the Indian child result in diminishing motivation, increasing negativism, poor self-images and low levels of aspiration. Until some compromises can be made by the school and the Indian and non-Indian communities, the impasse will remain and the sense of worth of the Indian student will remain low, inhibiting adequate academic achievement. The schools serving the majority cannot readily accommodate the children of minority groups but some provisions can be made through special classes, skilled teaching, and sensitive teachers which should enable every child to experience some success and maintain his sense of worth."

APPENDIX B

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF VALUE ORIENTATIONS
IN AN ALBERTA INDIAN COMMUNITY

by

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The study discussed here was conducted during the winter of 1965/66 in an isolated northern school division serving pupils of Indian ancestry in the province of Alberta, Canada. It was thought that a study of the value orientations of the participants in the educational enterprise in this northern setting might produce useful information for the improvement of curriculum and instruction in schools serving pupils of Indian ancestry. Conceivably, the findings might have wider application than to the field of Indian education.

The Problem

What are the value orientations of Indian parents, adolescent Indian pupils, and teachers and administrators in Northland School Division #61 in the province of Alberta? This study was designed to elicit these value orientation patterns through the use of the theory and method of Florence Kluckhohn, and to establish variations between and within the samples according to certain criterion variables.

Three smaller problems outside the theoretical framework of the major study were also investigated: the type of discipline preferred by each sample, preferences for differing

methods in the learning of English, and occupational knowledge possessed by each of the samples.

Sub-Problems and Hypotheses

For purposes of investigation, the major problem was divided into eight sub-problems and accompanying hypotheses. Sub-problems 1, 2, and 3 were concerned with the dominant value orientations of pupils, parents, and teachers. Hypothesis 1 predicted that the dominant value orientations of parents would be Collaterality, Present, Harmony-with-Nature, and Being. Hypothesis 2 predicted that the dominant orientations of pupils would be Collaterality, Present, Harmony-with-Nature, and Being. Hypothesis 3 predicted that the dominant orientations of teachers and administrators would be Individualism, Future, Mastery-over-Nature, and Doing.

Sub-problems 4 to 8 inclusive were concerned with establishing the variations in total value orientation patterns between and within groups. Hypothesis 4 predicted significant differences between value orientation patterns of Indian parents and adolescent Indian pupils. Hypothesis 5 predicted significant differences between patterns of parents and of teachers and administrators. Hypothesis 6 predicted significant differences between patterns of pupils and of teachers and administrators.

Sub-hypotheses 5.1, 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4 predicted differences between value orientation patterns of the two samples of individuals of Indian ancestry and of teachers and administrators according to pupil age, years of residential

school experience and sex, and years of teacher education possessed by teachers and administrators. Hypothesis 7 predicted no significant differences between patterns of Treaty and Non-Treaty Indian pupils. Hypothesis 8 predicted significant differences between patterns of teachers recruited in the United Kingdom in 1965 and all other teachers in Northland Division.

Theoretical Framework

The major part of the study was based on the theory of dominant and variant value orientations proposed by Florence Kluckhohn, who suggests that five "common human problems" exist in all societies at all times, and that the answers to these problems fall into limited, rank-ordered patterns termed "value orientations." The five problem areas identified in the theory are: Relational, Time, Man-Nature, Activity, and Human Nature. A statement of the problems and the value orientation area assigned to each is found in Table I.

Three possible value orientation positions are postulated within each of these areas. In the Relational area the positions are Lineality, Collaterality, Individualism. In the Time area, the positions are Past, Present, and Future. In the Man-Nature area the positions are Subject-to-Nature, Harmony-with-Nature, and Mastery-over-Nature. In the Activity area, the positions are Being, Being-in-Becoming, and Doing.

TABLE I
COMMON HUMAN PROBLEMS AND VALUE ORIENTATION AREAS^a

Problem	Value Orientation Area
1. What is the relation of man to nature and to supernature?	Man-Nature
2. What is the temporal focus of human life?	Time
3. What is the modality of human activity?	Activity
4. What is the modality of man's relationship to other men?	Relational
5. What is the character of innate human nature?	Human Nature

^aAdapted from Florence Rockwood Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodbeck, Variations in Value Orientations (Evanston: Row, Peterson and Company, 1961), p. 11.

An explanation of the terms used in Table II may be helpful at this time.

Relational Value Orientation Area. A "Lineality" orientation stresses the primacy of group goals which are continuous through time. Hereditary and kinship structures in aristocracies exemplify this orientation. Kitchen¹ has suggested that "bureaucratic lineality" may be a valid

¹Hubert Kitchen, "Relationships Between the Value Orientations of Grade IX Pupils in Newfoundland and the Characteristics of their Primary and Secondary Groups." (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, 1966), pp. 74-76.

TABLE II

FIVE VALUE ORIENTATION AREAS AND THE RANGE OF
VALUE ORIENTATION POSITIONS POSSIBLE IN EACH^a

Value Orientation Area	Range of Possible Value Orientation Positions		
Relational	Lineality	Collaterality	Individualism
Time	Past	Present	Future
Man-Nature	Subject-to-Nature	Harmony-with-Nature	Mastery-over-Nature
Activity	Being	Being-in-Becoming	Doing
Human Nature ^b	Evil	Neutral or Mixture of Good and Evil	Good
	- - - - - Mutable-Immutable	- - - - - Mutable-Immutable	- - - - - Mutable-Immutable

^aAdapted from Kluchhohn and Strodtbeck, op. cit., p. 12.

^bThe Human Nature value orientation area was not investigated in this study.

concept in discussing an individual's dependence upon or allegiance to a large organization. "Collaterality," on the other hand, although it is concerned with group goals and the subordination of individual wishes to group objectives, assumes the possibility of discontinuity in group allegiance, as when a person changes employment or leisure-time activities. "Individualism" implies that the individual is autonomous,

that he need not bow to the demands of either the lineal group or the collateral group.

Time Value Orientation Area. The three positions in this orientation seem self-explanatory. They represent possible foci of the individual's world view.

Man-Nature Value Orientation Area. The "Subject-to-Nature" orientation is the familiar concept of fatalism and calm acceptance of natural forces. "Harmony-with-Nature" implies no real separation of man, nature and supernature. One is simply the extension of the other, and a concept of wholeness springs from their unity. "Mastery-over-Nature" implies that natural forces of all kinds are to be overcome and put to use for the benefit of mankind.

Activity Value Orientation Area. A "Being" orientation implies that the individual prefers the kind of activity which is the spontaneous expression of that which is conceived to be "given" in the personality. It does not imply license, nor is it a developmental concept. "Being-in-Becoming," on the other hand, implies a strong desire on the part of the individual to develop all aspects of the self as an integrated whole. The individual is concerned with developing what he is rather than demonstrating what he can do. The "Doing" orientation stresses accomplishing things in terms of standards outside the person himself.

Miscellaneous Items. The miscellaneous items concerning discipline and learning English were pragmatically-based.

The occupations item followed the technique of French,² who used the item in the Lesser Slave Lake in 1960.

Instrumentation

Two basic instruments were created, based upon the original Kluckhohn instrument used in New Mexico in 1951. The Parent's Interview Schedule and Pupil's Questionnaire contained identical items, but differing instructions and identifying data sheets because of the differing methods of completion. The Teacher's and Administrator's Questionnaire contained items adapted to the vocabulary of a professional group, but tapping the same value orientation areas and behavior spheres as the items in the parent's and pupil's instrument. The miscellaneous item concerning learning English as a second language was not used in the teacher's questionnaire.

Sample

The parent sample consisted of thirty individuals, fifteen male, fifteen female, drawn at random from the official school lists of parents in the Wabasca-Desmarais community of northern Alberta. The pupil sample consisted of 138 pupils aged twelve years and upwards, attending St. Theresa School, Wabasca, or Mistassiniy High School, Desmarais. The teacher-

²Cecil L. French, "Social Class and Motivation," B.Y. Card, G.K. Hirabayashi and Cecil French, The Metis in Alberta Society (Edmonton: University of Alberta Committee for Social Research, 1963), pp. 313-54.

administrator sample consisted of 129 teachers and administrators out of a total of 152 on staff in all Northland School Division during the school year 1965/66.

A three-phase Pilot Study consisted of a sample of thirty-five students in educational administration at the University of Alberta, Edmonton, nine parents, and twenty-five Indian students at Calling Lake, Alberta, and seventy-five teachers in four elementary-junior high schools in Edmonton.

Data Collection

Data from the thirty parents were collected by the investigator through personal interview in the homes of the parents, assisted by a local interpreter who had recorded on tape a translation of the instrument into Cree. Data from the pupils were collected in group administration of the pupils' questionnaire by the investigator at St. Theresa School and Mistassiniy School. Teacher-administrator data was secured by the investigator at the time of the annual Teachers' Convention of Northland School Division in January, 1966, where the Teacher's and Administrator's Questionnaire was explained and distributed. Almost half the questionnaires were returned by mail over a period of nine weeks.

Statistical Treatment

Nonparametric statistical procedures were used throughout the study in view of the nature of the raw data, which are gathered in rank-ordered form. Three procedures were used:

(1) calculation of Kendall's "S" to determine the existence of patterning in items, (2) binomial analysis against the normal curve for determination of homogeneity of patterning within items and within areas, and (3) use of Caudill's "distance" concept for the simultaneous comparison of one triple with another. A decision rule based on criteria of difference in type of pattern and difference in degree of homogeneity of response was arbitrarily adopted. The principle undergirding the decision rule was that a difference of twenty-five per cent in type of response in value orientation areas, or in homogeneity of response in individual items, can be considered evidence of a significant difference in pattern of value orientations. Chi-square values were computed through the use of contingency tables for similarly-ordered items in an attempt to demonstrate degree of association or independence of any two triples, but the evidence thus produced appeared inconclusive, and was reported only as a matter of interest.

In the Miscellaneous items, tests of statistical significance were not performed. Reporting was confined to statements of the rank-ordering of preferences in the "Types of Discipline" and "Learning English" items, and to raw frequencies and percentages in the responses to the "Occupations" item.

Findings

The value orientation patterns of the three major samples as discovered by the study are set forth in Table III.

The numerical frequencies of choices for the various alternatives upon which these orderings are based will be found in Table IV, which includes data for both samples and subsamples. Additional data concerning the homogeneity of patterning as established by the use of Kendall's "S" and binomial analysis will be found in Appendix I, which is concerned with the comparison of pupil and teacher value orientation patterns. Appendix I serves as a paradigm of the reporting style used in the study for all other comparisons made in testing the hypotheses of the study.

TABLE III

VALUE ORIENTATION PATTERNS OF PARENTS, PUPILS,
AND TEACHERS IN NORTHLAND SCHOOL DIVISION #61

Value Orientation Area	Parents	Pupils	Teachers
Relational	Lin > Coll ^a Indiv	Lin > Coll > Indiv	Indiv > Lin > Coll
Time	Fut > Pres > Past	Fut > Pres > Past	Fut > Pres > Past
Man-Nature	Mast > Harm > Subj	Subj > Mast > Harm	Mast > Harm > Subj
Activity <i>Bc</i>	<i>Bc</i> ^a Doing > Being	Bc > Doing > B	Bc > Doing > B

In the Relational value orientation area, parents and pupils ranked their preferences as Lineality preferred over Collaterality preferred over Individualism, but teachers chose Individualism over Lineality over Collaterality. In

^aSee Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, op. cit., p. 131, for interpretation of this symbolic notation of level of statistical significance.

TABLE IV

FREQUENCY OF CHOICES IN PAIRS OF ALTERNATIVES BY VALUE ORIENTATION AREAS

	I. Relational Area			II. Time Area		
	Lin/Coll	Lin/Indiv.	Coll/Indiv.	Past/Pres	Past/Future	Pres/Future
Parents	122.5	112.5	107.5	64.0	55.5	88.5
Null Mean	(105)	(105)	(105)	(90)	(90)	(90)
Pupils	561.0	568.0	544.0	284.0	244.5	315.0
Null Mean	(483)	(483)	(483)	(414)	(414)	(414)
Teachers	484.5	414.5	403.5	160.5	103.0	330.0
Null Mean	(451.5)	(451.5)	(451.5)	(387)	(387)	(387)
U.K. Tchrs.	148.0	132.0	131.0	58.5	42.5	107.5
Null Mean	(140)	(140)	(140)	(120)	(120)	(120)
III. Man-Nature Area						
IV. Activity Area						
	Subj/Har	Subj/Mast	Har/Mast	Being/Bc	Being/Doing	Bc/Doing
Parents	57.5	64.0	70.0	35.0	47.0	77.0
Null Mean	(75)	(75)	(75)	(75)	(75)	(75)
Pupils	385.0	373.0	321.5	174.0	207.5	355.5
Null Mean	(345)	(345)	(345)	(345)	(345)	(345)
Teachers	227.5	141.0	167.5	148.0	249.0	411.0
Null Mean	(322.5)	(322.5)	(322.5)	(322.5)	(322.5)	(322.5)
U.K. Tchrs.	70.5	35.5	47.0	60.5	103.0	141.0
Null Mean	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)

TABLE IV (continued)

FREQUENCY OF CHOICES IN PAIRS OF ALTERNATIVES BY VALUE ORIENTATION AREAS

	I. Relational Area			II. Time Area		
	Lin/Coll	Lin/Indiv.	Coll/Indiv.	Past/Pres	Past/Future	Pres/Future
Treaty Pupils Null Mean	376.0 (315)	388.5 (315)	380.0 (315)	183.5 (270)	156.0 (270)	205.0 (270)
Non-Treaty Pupils	185.0 (168)	179.5 (168)	164.5 (168)	100.5 (144)	88.5 (144)	110.0 (144)
	III. Man-Nature Area			IV. Activity Area		
	Subj/Har	Subj/Mast	Har/Mast	Being/Bc	Being/Doing	Bc/Doing
Treaty Pupils Null Mean	241.5 (225)	240.0 (225)	209.5 (225)	103.5 (225)	131.5 (225)	242.0 (225)
Non-Treaty Pupils Null Mean	143.5 (120)	133.0 (120)	112.0 (120)	70.5 (120)	76.0 (120)	115.5 (120)

the Time value orientation area, parents, pupils and teachers preferred Future over Present over Past. In the Man-Nature value orientation area, parents and teachers chose Mastery-over-Nature over Harmony-with-Nature over Subject-to-Nature. Pupils preferred Subject-to-Nature over Mastery-over-Nature over Harmony-with-Nature. In the Activity value orientation area, all groups agreed upon Being-in-Becoming over Doing over Being.

Statistically significant differences were found between the patterns of parents and pupils, parents and teachers, pupils and teachers, and Treaty and Non-Treaty pupils. No significant overall pattern differences were found between teachers recruited in the United Kingdom in 1965 and other Northland teachers, although variations appeared in many items. Teachers with the least amount of teacher education displayed value orientation patterns closer to those of Indian parents than did teachers with the highest level of teacher education. Patterns of male pupils approximated those of teachers more closely than did patterns of female pupils. To a limited extent, the older the Indian pupil and the greater his residential school experience, the nearer was his value orientation pattern to that of teachers. The pattern of fourteen-year-old pupils was found to be closest to that of teachers and administrators. Appendix II sets forth the patterns of pupils grouped according to age.

In the matter of discipline, parents, pupils and teachers gave first preference to Insightful discipline, but differed between Physical and Emotional discipline as their second-order choice. In learning English, parents gave equal weight to Rote Memorization and Translating. Pupils chose Translating, then Rote Memorization, then Thinking in English.

This study demonstrated the usefulness of the Kluckhohn model for testing inter and intra-cultural variations in value orientations, and posed a number of questions for further research. Among these are the need for further refinement of the instrument to investigate a wider range of behavior spheres, the effects of maturation and years of teacher education upon value orientations, and the need to examine the appropriateness of the objectives of education for schools serving pupils of Indian ancestry.

Some Possible Implications Arising From "A Comparative Study of Value Orientations in an Alberta Indian Community"

Implications stated in this appendix will be concerned largely with the field of program development in educational services. The list is not exhaustive, nor does it extend beyond the field of education, except by inference. It is presented as a starting point for further thinking on the relationship between value orientations and daily human behavior in an industrialized society. Within this frame of reference, then, the following implications may be seen at this time:

1. The highest loyalties of Indian parents and adolescent Indian pupils are given to the goals of their own group, goals from the past and present, rather than to individual goals such as we set for ourselves. Indians rank Individualism third among three positions; teachers and administrators rank it first. If we expect Indian people, then, to follow our example, it would be about the same as asking John Diefenbaker to turn Liberal overnight!
2. Both Indian parents and pupils are looking to the future, and have a very strong desire to improve themselves. Teachers hold these same values. Perhaps this is why Indian parents send their children to school at all, and why the children attend as long as they do. However, this orientation is in sharp conflict with their "Lineality" orientation described in (1) above. Intense anxiety is continually present as they struggle for the solution of how to improve themselves in the modern world yet remain loyal to their family ways. It is possible that this anxiety partly explains their excessive drinking and the increase in the number of crimes of violence involving Indian people.
3. Indian parents are gradually moving away from a fatalistic or mystical "harmony-with-nature" view of life and are beginning to believe that they have some control over their destinies. Indian pupils, however, display a very strong sense of helplessness in the face of natural forces. Could this help explain why they do poorly in Science and Social Studies courses?
4. Non-treaty pupils hold quite different value orientation from those of Treaty pupils. The Non-treaties are considerably more



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Indian parents and "being" oriented than their
perhaps this is because non-Indian parents have had to
for themselves rather than learn from their parents.

2. The above findings lead to my argument on the development of the
social education system. Indian parents want to know how to
it is important, especially when education is
very closely related to the way of life in the
community. It is not only a social education, but
example of the Indian parents' goal is to have their children
or evening school as a potential educational force in their
to take school more seriously and not to lose their children.
take but one example, the educational development of the
is a social and religious in the traditional Indian sense.
give a much better reason for the development of the school
or five hours per day.

3. Indian parents and pupils are threatened by some of the aspects
of education in a school, even though they have never heard of
of these subjects. Consider, for example, General Education
"Cultural Education," even as part of the "Indian
Education," when carried out in a school system.
this objective is, in effect, to make the Indian child to know his
"Indianity," which education (which may mean leaving his family,
physically and mentally), and leaving Indianity. It is to say
wonder that Indian pupils drop out of school or study high school
as soon as they can. They can't get into school when they are level-
ing, but they have something to give when in the school they are
enjoyed. Indian students receive a high school in the Indian
highly compared to the wealth and love of the family.

4. Teachers in Indian schools should be thoroughly informed of the
differences in values between them and their pupils. This means
education to achieve differences by the concept of education, and
a religious system of education. Teachers for Indian schools
schools with a large number of Indian pupils. Since the teachers
know the differences, they will be in a position to help them not
to the pupils is a fundamental, religious way, and help the pupils
behave when values they want to follow for the rest of their lives.

5. Teachers and Indian pupils are a critically important group.
Group. For the year they "grow-up" the whole new education,
growing in a social rather than a school. Then they reject it,
as the story shows that the child, pupils but is back in this place.

